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EDUCATION

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO THE SCIENCE, ART, PHILOSOPHY AND LITERATURE OF EDUCATION

FRANK HERBERT PALMER, A. M., EDITOR

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EDUCATION

Devoted to the Science, Art, Philosophy and Literature of Education

VOL. XLIX. DECEMBER, 1928 No. 4

Geography in Teachers Colleges

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THE SITUATION

DURING the last decade a large number of normal schools have become teachers colleges. The degree curricula have increased in number and importance, and with this expansion has come a great increase in the number of courses offered. With the purpose of investigating the situation as it relates to courses carried in geography departments, including geography and related subjects, this study was undertaken. Methods courses as well as content courses were carefully considered.

Requests for catalogues and enquiries as to the nature of the geography courses offered were addressed to 112 institutions, with returns in one form or another from 83 schools. In the study 651 courses were classified and tabulated, while the faculty lists were scanned to determine the number of teachers classified as teachers of geography and related subjects. The courses were tabulated under 32 main and miscellaneous headings. It was necessary to group some courses under miscellaneous headings, as it was impossible even to approximate from the data available the exact nature of the courses.

Summary of Tabulation of Courses

I.	Principles, Elements, et cetera, of Geography		60—9.2%
	Basis physiographic or climatic	13	
	Basis apparently geographic	13	
	Basis undetermined	34	
II.	Economic Geography (varying greatly)		26— 4 %
III.	Content-Methods and Methods Courses		113—17.3%
	Content and methods combined	32	
	General technique and methods	27	
	Primary methods	9	
	Intermediate methods	10	
	Grammar grades and junior high school methods	14	
	High school methods	7	
	General elementary school methods, including rural school methods	14	
IV.	Regional Courses		230—35.3%
	General	11	
	North America	40	
	South and Latin America	40	
	Europe	44	
	Asia, Australia, and Pacific Isles	25	
	Africa	7	
	Home state	26	
	All other	37	
V.	Courses in Related Fields		78—12 %
	Physiography	43	
	Meteorology and climatology	30	
	Soils	4	
VI.	Specialized Miscellaneous Courses		144—22 %
	Agricultural geography	1	
	Mathematical geography	4	
	Historical geography of the U. S.	38	
	Political geography	11	
	World problems, et cetera	12	
	Business and commercial geography	29	
	Field courses	10	
	Conservation of natural resources	17	
	Research	8	
	Miscellaneous	14	
	Total courses tabulated		651

Number of Courses Offered in Individual Schools

Schools vary greatly in the number of courses offered, with the greatest number of courses commonly found in the schools of the middle west. Though seven courses was the median number offered, there were 39 schools offering fewer than seven courses, while 25 offered fewer than four courses. One school offered nothing, in the regular or summer session so far as known, which even a liberal classification could consider as geography. Thirty-seven schools offered more than seven courses, while 19 listed from 13 to 19 courses, the latter number being the greatest given.

With a large number of courses offered, it would ordinarily be assumed that there would be a number of geographers carried on the faculty list. However, one school offering eighteen courses in the geography department listed only one instructor in geography on the faculty. Another listed nine courses in geography in the catalogue but carried no geographer on the faculty. In at least six cases where content courses in geography were offered no geographer was listed with the faculty. It seems often to be assumed that no special knowledge of geography is essential for the teacher of methods in geography. In the cases where many courses are offered with only one geographer listed, the inference is that student assistants are teaching or that of the courses offered few are actually given.

Departmental Appearance of Geography

In some cases the geography, for any one of several reasons which cannot be considered, does not appear in a separate department. Happily, there appear to be many more separate departments than combinations with other subjects or appearances in other departments. However, geography appears under several such combinations as "Department of Biology and Physiography," "Department of Geography and Natural Science," and "Geography and Nature Study." Geography also appears in "Science Departments," "Natural Science Departments," "Social Science Departments," and "His-

tory and Social Science Departments." The variety of associations in which geography is found is ample evidence that there is uncertainty as to its rightful situation.

In the faculty lists are found odd teaching combinations which are the products of local conditions. Such combinations as "Teacher of Geography, Mathematics, and Athletics," "Mathematics and Geography," "Geography and History," "Public Speaking and Geography," "Rural Schools and Geography," are some of the more striking. This situation is more damaging, since it seems safe to assume that in many cases of such combinations the teacher is better prepared in the other subject or subjects taught than in geography.

It is hoped that the undesirable phases of the situation as illustrated by some of the examples above are an outgrowth of the rapid expansion in the teachers college curricula, rather than a permanent development.

The First Content Course in Geography

Following is a group of quotations taken from various catalogues, most of them found in connection with the first or fundamental content course in geography. They purport to define geography or describe the course offered.

"A study of forms and forces; Dynamical Geology; our place in the Solar System. A preparation for the proper teaching of Geography, the Earth as the home of man. Nature Study."

"Physical Geography brought up to college rank, with causal relationships and influence on human activity stressed."

"Human Geography. A brief study of the historical geology of the earth followed by a rather intensive study of the influence of mountains, rivers, plains, oceans, land forms, and climate on the activities and conduct of peoples."

"Geography is a science in which the superstructure of commercial and human factors is built upon the underlying climatic and geologic causes."

"Modern geography treats of the adjustments made by peoples in the endeavor to fit themselves with the greatest advantage into their natural environment."

Many more examples might be given to show the variety

of opinions as to what is geography. With such variety where explanations are given, it is clear that the first courses offered will represent very divergent ideas. Item I in the tabulation of courses attempts to show that the various philosophies result in an entirely different basis for the development of a course. In practice this condition may result in two courses with an identical title handling much different subject matter.

One of the baffling problems met with concerned the so-called "Human Geography" courses. Some of these courses were without doubt first or fundamental content courses and were so classified. Others appeared to be specialized courses the nature of which it was impossible to determine. One school carried one course called "Principles of Human Geography" and another called "Principles of Anthropogeography," the last undoubtedly a specialized course.

The illustration above shows how difficult it is to arrive at definite conclusions as to the nature of the courses offered, and explains why it was impossible to determine the basis of approach for the majority of the first fundamental courses.

The Courses Offered in Economic Geography

The so-called "Economic Geography" courses showed great variation. In some cases they were manifestly regional courses and were so classified under the regional unit named. Those finally classified as economic geography represented for the most part a "commodity" treatment of products, dealing with the relationships and principles involved in production, distribution, and utilization of various commodities in various regions.

Combined Content and Methods Courses

In Item I of the tabulation of courses it was apparent that each of the schools reporting did not have a course that could be classified as a first fundamental course, since there were only sixty such courses reported from eighty-three

schools. In many of the cases where there were no separate content courses, a combined content and methods course filled the need for geography. In some cases there were separate content-methods courses for each curriculum group. It must be understood that these are not methods courses with a minimum of content introduced as illustrative material, but are in many cases the only courses offered to meet the need of students for geography.

These courses differ as well from the so-called professionalized subject matter courses in that there is in many cases a question as to the level at which the instruction is carried on. Most courses taught at the college level in teachers colleges can be and should be professionalized. That is something quite different from teaching the courses at the level at which the students are preparing to teach. For example, a description of one of the courses in question reads, "Methods and review of geography as taught in the eighth grade." In this case this was the only course in geography offered. Another reads, "Content on grade level and methods."

Since there are thirty-two courses classified as of this general type, it is apparent that the practice of offering work of this kind is well intrenched. Where such courses are the only courses the teacher-in-training has in geography, the preparation cannot be thorough. However, even that much geography for the prospective teacher is far better than none, if that be the other alternative.

The Methods Courses

Little in detail can be said regarding the methods courses in geography. The courses appearing in the catalogues vary in number from none to one for every grade group. It would seem from the tabulation that the practice of having one general technique course is the more common one, though in some cases that is supplemented by special methods courses for the different grade groups.

An endeavor was made in classifying the methods courses to divide as minutely as possible, to show the great varia-

tion in practices followed. There are so many different divisions and groupings in the methods courses that there is evident a need for clarifying the problem of methods in geography. One outstanding point of interest is the few courses offered in senior high school methods. This is indicative in part of the fields of teaching for which the teachers colleges prepare students, and further shows that at the high school level methods are left to take care of themselves.

Though not apparent in the tabulation of courses, the distribution of methods courses is very uneven. One school will have three or four courses, and the next four or five schools in the individual tabulation have none. It is apparent that there is no uniformity of opinion as to the number of courses which are necessary or desirable. In some cases a knowledge of content is considered the only essential, while the other extreme is found where only methods courses are given.

Regional Courses

In this classification the regional courses are those which treat the geography of regional units of various sorts. Little or no information was available as to the method of treatment. There is probably even less uniformity in the treatment of these regional divisions than in the introductory courses in geography. From the divisions used in some cases, and the continental combinations grouped in single courses, the primary motive seems to be to cover the ground as fully as possible by means of survey courses. This would seem to be a justifiable procedure in the teachers college field, provided sound introductory courses are pre-requisites for those of a regional survey type.

The regional courses offer a fertile field for the expansion in number of the courses offered in geography. The question arises as to how often these courses are actually given. In one school nine courses of a regional nature were classified as being given "on demand." It is assumed that the strength

of a department of geography would be better determined by the number of students served than by the number of courses offered.

Courses in Related Fields

Courses in this group are limited in the teachers college field almost exclusively to physiography, meteorology and climatology, though in a few cases courses in soils were offered. In this study all courses in geology were automatically ruled out of the classification.

In dealing with this group of courses the philosophy of the individual will determine his reaction to the situation. It appears that there are certain practical aspects of the situation which merit consideration. The study of physiography, climatology, and soils contributes to an understanding of the elements of the natural environment. The ideal first course in geography should deal so effectively with man's activities in relation to the natural environment, and the elements composing it, that the elementary school teacher would need no further stressing of the individual elements. This does not mean that it would not be advisable for such teachers to have other courses in geography.

But with the development of the four year curricula, the teachers colleges are coming more and more to supply teachers to the senior high schools, more especially the smaller high schools. A teacher in this grade of work must often be prepared in at least three fields, and even then may be called upon to teach a subject outside the fields in which special preparation has been acquired. Too many times the subject in question is geography. Under such circumstances there is a real place in the teachers college curricula for the related courses, and "majors" in the department of geography should be thoroughly trained in the closely related subjects. A teacher well prepared in related fields as well as geography may have the opportunity to make a place in the curriculum for geography if it is not already there.

Specialized Miscellaneous Courses

This group of courses offers another opportunity for the expansion of the number of courses offered in the geography departments of the teachers colleges. It would appear that in the two year courses of teachers colleges there would be little or no place for the group of courses offered under this heading. Even in the four year curricula a question might well be raised regarding the necessity for some of these courses. Many of the courses are transplanted from universities where the instructional staff enjoys a light teaching load, magnificent library facilities, and as a result can handle specialized courses with advanced students in an admirable manner. Whether this degree of specialization should be transplanted to the teachers college might be questioned.

Courses which could be classified under no other heading than research were very few in number. It was impossible to determine the nature of the work done in courses which it seemed fair to classify as research. These so-called research courses in teachers colleges are apparently courses offering opportunity for semi-independent work to augment the number of hours credit the student may make in a single department. Such specialization may be a real handicap to the student when seeking a position. Three institutions gave geography work for graduate credit, but of the three it appeared that only one was justified in so doing.

In this group of specialized miscellaneous courses were placed the courses offered in connection with commercial curricula, such as "Business Geography" and "Commercial Geography." These courses are commonly offered exclusively for commercial course students, with no pre-requisites of a geographical character. From personal experience in teaching such a course in a large teachers college it would appear that such a single quarter's work offers an exceedingly unsatisfactory background for the teaching of geography in the high school. In many high schools it is the "commercial" teacher who teaches what geography is taught, regardless of

preparation. In such a case one course in preparation is better than none.

It is interesting to note that courses dealing with the "Historical Geography of the United States" appear as most numerous in this specialized miscellaneous group.

Regional Distribution of Conditions

From the data submitted in the tabulation and the accompanying discussion, it is apparent that there is a great deal of variation as regards geography in normal schools and teachers colleges. Though there are some exceptions to the generalization, it appears that the schools of the middle west offer the largest number of courses and employ the greatest number of trained teachers in geography departments. In general the schools of the east are notably weak in the number of content courses offered in geography. This is more notable in the southeast than in the northeast. Very few data were received from the southern states. In the far west and southwest the schools vary greatly in size, and the work is very spotted, two schools in the same state offering in some instances very different work in geography. It must be understood that there are exceptions in varying degrees to all of the generalizations above, including such cases as schools which made no return to the enquiry or which did not have available their most recent catalogue showing improved conditions.

Suggestions as to Causes for the Present Situation of Geography in Teachers Colleges

In the rapid expansion of curricula and courses in teachers colleges, it is natural that there should be incongruities and lack of equilibrium in some cases. There undoubtedly has been over-expansion as well as under-development.

With the expansion in number of courses offered there has often been a shortage of funds which has made impossible the proper expansion of the faculties. Even when faculties were expanded funds were not always available to pro-

cure teachers with modern advanced training. Whether this condition is any more true in the field of geography than in other fields is a question, but it would seem to be more vital as regards geography because of the rapid evolution of that science in recent years. In most teachers colleges there seems to be a strong tendency to employ their own graduates, a practice which gives a very "ingrown" complexion to the faculty lists. This is a practice by no means confined to the teachers college field, and should not be a drawback provided sufficient work for an advanced degree were done in another institution.

In the expansion of the teachers college, much of the old has been slow to change, for the evolution of the normal school into the teachers college is still going on. Most schools for a long period will continue to give two year courses for the preparation of certain grades of teachers. The courses in geography reflect this "half and half" condition, part two-year normal school courses and part four-year degree courses. In most cases the majority of the students are enrolled in the two-year curricula. Thus the teachers colleges are experiencing the "pains" attendant upon rapid growth.

In some instances an antiquated State Course of Study may serve as a brake on the functioning of geography in the schools of the state and in the teachers colleges as well. The problem is to bring about a revision of the course of study in question.

Coupled in point of time with this period of evolution of the teachers college has been an equally noteworthy period of evolution of the science of geography. Geography as a functioning science, dealing with the adjustment of man's activities to the natural environment, with all the potent relationships involved, has injected new life into the essential factual material which was geography. Suggested ways in which man may better adjust his activities to the natural environmental complex in which he finds himself, to his own ultimate gain, present only one phase of the functioning

modern geography. Since geography in general in this country developed as an offshoot of geology it is not strange that in some cases great emphasis is put upon the geologic elements of the natural environment.

Under the conditions briefly outlined, it is small wonder that geography in teachers colleges should present a sort of "crazy quilt" appearance to the observer. A survey of the college and university field would undoubtedly show a similar condition to exist there. It was with the purpose of directing the attention of geographers to the situation that this study was undertaken. It is only by isolating to a degree the elements of the problem that the situation can be understood, and solutions motivated.

Constructive Suggestions Dealing with Geography in Teachers Colleges

I. Some sort of unity of understanding is desirable as to what constitutes modern geography. This does not necessarily involve the indorsement of any particular definition of geography. It does involve a concept of geography as a functioning science which makes a real contribution to the welfare of mankind. A thorough-going defensible philosophy is one of the first essentials in the equipment of the geography teacher at any level of instruction.

II. It is desirable, as an outgrowth of a sound philosophy, that introductory courses be developed which make available to students a geography which is constantly functioning to promote the better adjustment of man's activities to his natural environment. Such a geography should make so vital and valuable a contribution that it would become in a relatively short time a required subject in most of the curricula of all teacher training institutions. This stage has already been attained to a degree in some institutions, but should become general. In most institutions departmental strength in the long run hinges largely upon the contribution made by the introductory course offered.

III. It is desirable, in order to hasten the development

of modern introductory courses in geography, as well as to advance the teaching of geography in general in the teachers college field, to develop and facilitate co-operation among teachers at this level.

IV. It would seem to follow that at least one professionalized content course should precede the methods course or courses offered in the teaching of geography in the teachers college field. The present tendency toward one course covering the whole field of technique in teaching geography, under which the various special methods in vogue are considered in proper perspective, should be encouraged.

V. It is desirable that the teachers college, in geography and other fields, should never lose sight of the fact that its business is to prepare teachers. The university departments that prepare teachers for the normal school and teachers college field would do well to keep this point in mind.

VI. Finally, it is desirable that the teachers colleges and normal schools assume the responsibility which rightfully belongs to them, and take the leadership in making a modern functioning geography available to the great mass of teachers in the field.

Sunset in the Land of Lakes

Streak of rose and rift of silver,
Cloud ship of the sunset hue,
Furl your splendor-sail; take haven
For the night in harbor blue.

Aftermath

Windblown and beaten, at intervals still shaken
By the fitful, quivering sobs of one who has wept
In the passion that only a helpless rebellion can waken,
The petulant storm-child slept.

OLGA ACHTENHAGEN.

Factors Determining a Child's Moral Standards

C. G. WRENN, OREGON NORMAL SCHOOL, MONMOUTH, OREGON.

CHARACTER-EDUCATION as a responsibility of the public school system is becoming increasingly evident as an educational problem. Educators find themselves ranged in all degrees between the extreme position on the one hand of Dr. Henry Suzallo, who stated in a recent address before the Washington State Teachers Association that the school was responsible only for the intellectual training of the child and that character education belonged to the province of home and church; and the position on the other hand, of Professor W. W. Charters whose recent book[1] gives specific directions for character education in the school.

One of the phases of this highly involved problem is that of determining the factors that influence a child's moral standards. That a definite relationship exists between a child's moral standards, his intelligence rating and certain home conditions has been objectively indicated by a research project carried on by the writer some months ago and recently revised. The conclusions need several cycles of re-testing and at present may serve only as a working hypothesis of what relationships actually exist.

The major difficulty in a problem of this kind, i. e., determining the influences that shape a child's moral standards, is the formulation of a test that will indicate what a child's moral standards actually are. Correspondence with a number of men who are working in this field brought little results except from Professor E. D. Starbuck, chairman of the Iowa Committee winning the Character Education Institution's

1 Charters, W. W., "The Teaching of Ideals." The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

1922 award.[2] Professor Starbuck suggested the Boston University revision of the Giles Moral Judgments Test, further revised and standardized by Professor Starbuck and his department at the University of Iowa. Seventeen of the problems of this test were selected, with an eighteenth by the writer, nine of which seventeen were used by Athern in his Indiana Survey[3] and four of which are included in the Stanford revision of the Binet-Simon tests. The test, as presented to 245 eighth grade children of the Parrish Junior High School, Salem, Oregon, follows:

No. .....

MORAL PROBLEMS

In each of the following exercises please place a B (best) before that sentence or word of the four possibilities that is most nearly correct.

For example, in the case just below, you might think the item (d) the best of the four. Your checking would then be this:

It is our duty concerning victims of injustice to
- a. Mind our own business.
- b. Tell them that they deserve it.
- c. Have them arrested.

B d. Help them.

PLEASE DO NOT BEGIN UNTIL THE SIGNAL, THEN WORK JUST AS FAST AS YOU CAN.

---

1. If one makes a promise he is unable to keep he should
   - a. Make an apology and an explanation.
   - b. Show the one to whom the promise is made so much consideration that he will forget it.
   - c. Wait until he is asked about it.
   - d. Never make any more promises.
2. It is wrong to gamble because
   - a. The winner gives nothing for value received.
   - b. In the end you may lose more than you win.
   - c. Some people do not approve of it.

2 "Character Education Methods," The Iowa Plan, $20,000 Award, Character Education Institution, Chevy Chase, Washington, D. C.

3 Athern, Walter S., "The Indiana Survey of Religious Education." Doran Company, New York, 1923.

d. The police might get you.

3. When we are angry it is most helpful to
   a. Go off by ourselves.
   b. Call the other person abusive names.
   c. Swear.
   d. Hold our tempers and tongue.
4. If a man has secured his wealth dishonestly
   a. It is all right to steal it from him.
   b. We should be honest in dealing with him.
   c. It is all right if he gives freely to the poor.
   d. We should learn his game well enough to gain a little wealth ourselves.
5. If one is disappointed about an expected gift he should, if asked
   a. Honestly say so.
   b. Keep his disappointment to himself.
   c. Become angry.
   d. Have nothing more to do with the person who disappointed you.
6. To aid the Chinese in bettering the unsanitary conditions in their cities.
   a. Is none of our business.
   b. Let the Chinese suffer in order the better to learn their lesson.
   c. It is the business of the Asiatic countries.
   d. We should accept it as a privilege.
7. Selfishness is wrong because
   a. It lessens the amount of happiness in the world.
   b. It gives the selfish person what he wants.
   c. It may harm some one else.
   d. People do not like a selfish person.
8. Deceit is worse than stupidity because
   a. You won't keep your friends if you deceive them.
   b. It makes the deceived person angry.
   c. Deceit is both unkind and cowardly.
   d. You may get caught if you deceive people.
9. Unnecessarily failing to meet an appointment on time
   a. Doesn't make very much difference.
   b. Is all right if you are to meet a friend.
   c. Doesn't show consideration of others.
   d. Is all right if the other person is also late.
10. Cheating a railroad as compared with cheating a person
   a. Is less wicked because the railroad is a corporation.

b. Is equally bad for a self-respecting gentleman would hate himself for doing either.
c. Is not so bad because the railroad makes too much anyhow.
d. Is less wicked because the loss of each stockholder is slight.

11. If the editor publishes untrue statements in his paper
a. It is wrong.
b. It should be excused because he must liven up his columns.
c. It should not concern us unless the untrue statements are about us.
d. It is all right if no persons happen to suffer by his falsehoods.

12. If a teacher makes a mistake in adding up the points in an examination paper, the pupil should
a. Show it to all the other pupils as a pretty good joke.
b. Do nothing about it for it would bother the teacher
c. Report it only when it is so low as to mean the loss of a grade.
d. Report it whether the grade is too high or too low.

13. It is just as honorable to work at a trade as to have charge of an office.
a. If you get paid as well.
b. If the trade is an honest one.
c. If you don't need to wear old clothes when working at the trade.
d. If your "chums" work at the trade too.

14. When a storekeeper gives you too much change, you should
a. Keep it, for he would probably do the same if you gave him too much.
b. Scold the clerk for making a mistake.
c. Ask him if he did not make a mistake.
d. Report the error to the proprietor.

15. Pity means
a. To think of the poor.
b. To feel sorry for some one.
c. To cheer people up.
d. To be ashamed.

16. Revenge means
a. To hate a person who has harmed you.
b. To think evil of some one.

c. To be angry.
d. To get even.

17. Charity means
    a. To help those who are needy.
    b. To give gifts.
    c. To be good to your friends.
    d. To be happy.
18. Envy means
    a. Bad feeling toward some one.
    b. Not to be nice to people.
    c. To dislike it when some one is better off than you are.
    d. To hate some one who is rich.

Such testing by situation-reaction problems is the form used by Watson in his tests for fair-mindedness[4] and numerous others. It is an only partially successful attempt to get away from the dangers of subjective analysis and to present an actual situation to which the child will react. The eighth grade was selected for this study because it is the last grade to come within the compulsory age limit law of the State and is therefore the last grade to present a complete cross-section of community child life. There are very few children of foreign-born parents in this school, which is located in a rapidly growing suburb of the city. The test was given simultaneously in the various rooms of the school where the eighth grade was at a given hour, and the children worked within a time limit whose maximum was determined by previous experiment. Immediately following the return of the test papers the children were given questionnaires on home conditions, to which were affixed numbers corresponding to the number on their moral judgments paper. There was no name on the questionnaire so that the child would feel more free to answer the personal items. The child's name was on the test paper.

A key for the scoring of the test papers was constructed by the eminent-judges method, each judge giving a value for each solution of each problem, and the median value for each solution was then constructed into a key by which the papers

4 Watson, Goodwin B., "The Measurement of Fair-mindedness," Teachers College Contributions, No. 176, New York.

were scored. The papers were sorted into grade groups, and likewise the questionnaires, which were marked with the scores of their corresponding test papers.

In an attempt to arrive at the influence of home conditions upon moral standards, the questionnaires containing the highest 25% of moral judgments scores were grouped and the average home of such group was constructed. The same thing was done for the questionnaires containing the lowest 25% of moral judgments scores and the two hypothetical homes contrasted in the following manner:

	High 25%	Low 25%
Percent of homes in which mother is at home	84	79.3
Percent of homes in which father is church member	64	72.4
Percent of homes in which mother is church member	87.5	72.4
Percent of family attending Sunday School	58	44.3
Percent of cases in which child is S. S. member	96	76.5
Years schooling of father	11-1	9-6
Years schooling of mother	11-1	9-7
Books in home	204	155

Of the above conditions, the years schooling of parents and Sunday School membership of the child seem to be the most constant factors as determined in the following manner. The entire group of questionnaires was sorted into six equal parts according to the moral judgments score recorded on the questionnaire and the groups ranged from high to low according to such scores. The percentage of cases in each group is shown in the following table:

Test Score Groups from high to low	Percentage of homes in which child is a Sunday School member
First Group	91.4
Second Group	88.6
Third Group	82.9
Fourth Group	74.3
Fifth Group	71.4
Sixth Group	82.9

The last group average is quite inconsistent, but is possibly so because the range of test scores was greater in this group. It would probably have been more consistent to have sorted them in score-groups, each group have the same range, as was done below with the item of years schooling of parents. With this item the questionnaires were sorted into groups, each group having a test range of three points, as one group containing the questionnaires with the grades 74-76, the next 77-79, etc., and the average years schooling of both parents for each group was constructed. The table follows:

Test Score Groups from high to low	Average years schooling of both parents
First Group	11-2
Second Group	11-4
Third Group	10-1
Fourth Group	10-3
Fifth Group	9-1
Sixth Group	8-4
Seventh Group	9-0
Eighth Group	7-6
Ninth Group	6-6

The relation of the child's moral judgments grade to his intelligence quotient was next studied. It has been commonly conceded that the relationship between morals and intelligence is close, indeed that a means of measuring one also measured the other. The isolation of character traits from intelligence abilities is one of the most difficult of the problems in this field, a rather general doubt existing at the present as to whether or not it can be done at all. At any rate the relationship in this study was close and consistent. The results of the Illinois Examination, given two years before in all the schools of the city, were utilized. The intelligence quotient was now marked on each moral judgments paper and the papers grouped in four equal parts ranging from high to low of intelligence quotients. The median moral judgments scores resulted in the four groups: 77.2; 75.8; 74.8; and 72.8. The process was next reversed and the papers

grouped in four parts from high to low moral judgments scores, the median intelligence quotient for each group resulting as follows: 109.7; 112.2; 104.5; and 99.0. Such a consistent rise and fall in the moral judgments score when related to the intelligence quotient, and of the I. Q. when related to the moral judgments score, and a marked difference in the scores in the highest and lowest groups, may be somewhat significant.

Such conclusions as may be drawn from the above study seem to indicate that the factors of a child's intelligence, his parents' schooling and the child's Sunday School affiliations are constant in their influence upon the child's reaction to a situation involving moral judgment. The first two factors named above are quite possibly due to a common element, i. e., the parents' intelligence. Whether or not the same constant factor of the child's Sunday School membership would be present four years from the age at which these tests were given constitutes an interesting problem. In fact, with the above skeleton of treatment, a number of possible influences might be investigated. A definition of character is necessary, but to use that of Dewey's[5] "Character is the working interaction of habits," it would seem difficult for the school, which is the one intelligent director of habit-formation, to escape responsibility in this direction.

1. Athern, Walter S. *The Indiana Survey of Religious Education*, Doran Company, New York, 1923.
2. Charters, W. W. *The Teaching of Ideals*, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1928.
3. *Character Education Methods*, The Iowa Plan $20,000 Award, Character Education Institution, Chevy Chase, Washington, D. C.
4. Dewey, John. *Human Nature and Conduct*, Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1922.
5. Watson, Goodwin B. *The Measurement of Fairmindedness*, Teachers College Contributions, No. 176, New York.

5 Dewey, John, "Human Nature and Conduct," page 38, Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1922.

The Temptations of Intelligence

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ONE would perhaps, if the question were put to one, agree that a high level of intelligence is an invaluable quality in a teacher. And so of course it is, provided it is rightly used and directed. But the trouble is that superiority in intelligence is itself a temptation to its own misuse. More than this, it is to some extent a drawback. The man whose power of comprehension, of relevant thinking, of apprehending relations, is above the average, may still be in other respects as other men are, no better if no worse. But his very ease of thinking leads him into three temptations, each a cause of teaching inefficiency. The first is that he is apt to pitch his teaching above the level of his class, and so to waste much of his energy. No doubt his very intelligence itself should enable him to avoid this mistake, for he should be quicker than the average in detecting the qualities and disabilities of his pupils, by reason of the intelligence that is in him. But in practice it often works out otherwise. To begin with the duller teacher is more appreciative of his pupils' difficulties for the very reason that they have been his own. What he has himself experienced he can understand in others and recall, while the very intelligent teacher in spite of all his intelligence, can yet not recall what he has never experienced. And apart from the past inexperience of the clever man, the facility of his mind is a drawback in the present. For because things come so easily to him, he is less able to detect wherein the difficulties of his intellectual inferiors consist. In presenting the solution of a problem he leaves out the simpler parts of the argument, or assumes premises which are by no means obvious to his pupils. More than this, the repetition of the obvious is irksome in proportion to obviousness; so

that the clever teacher is the more easily bored. The cure for this is to apply his abilities not only to his subject, but to a study of his pupils themselves, of their difficulties and of their mental processes, when he will be able to make more rapid progress in understanding how to teach,—that is, understanding how to make his pupils understand,—than his less intelligent fellow can ever attain. The few brilliant teachers who have also been brilliant thinkers are those who have taken the trouble to do this.

Again, for reasons already given, the clever teacher is prone to pay most attention to the brighter members of his class, and to overlook the dull. Not only is his teaching attuned to their requirements, but his interest is directed to them also. One gets no kick out of endless repetition; interest depends upon novelty and progress: the bright pupil offers him his only chance of novelty and is less wearying than the ordinary or the dull. Here again the cure for this defect is to direct intelligence to a study of the dull mind, and to the methods of imparting knowledge to it. The clever teacher who undertakes this enterprise may find no little interest in his increasing knowledge of human nature, and incidentally in the way to handle it, be it dull or bright. But the clever teacher who cannot or will not make this diversion, being interested in his subject but not in his pupils, will do wisely, for himself and others, to change his profession.

Then there is the danger of conceit. This is one of the besetting sins of the young teacher with high university honors, who has won unmerited praise and regard for the possession of qualities which he did nothing to acquire. His character is as yet too small for his intelligence, and he may be found any day expatiating in college classrooms in a way intended to impress his hearers, but not calculated to instruct or inform them. The classroom is not a place in which to air one's knowledge or display one's cleverness. It is a place for interesting and instructing students in the elements of a

subject. One cure for this kind of conceit is experience; but it is not an infallible cure. Another cure is for the students, and particularly for the teacher's superiors, to listen to his teaching and be completely unimpressed. But there are other expedients: they vary with the individual.

The fact is all clever men are tempted to a certain intellectual arrogance. Not that all fall a prey to the temptation. But in their hearts many clever people are apt to despise fools. They have no right to do so. What the dullard requires is help and sympathy. What he gets is often a measure of good-humored contempt. But his dullness is his misfortune, not his fault; just as on the other hand the ability of the highly intelligent is a piece of good fortune and not a merit. The intelligent person has many undeserved advantages. By a stroke of luck at the beginning he comes into the world with an endowment likely to make life much more profitable and much more interesting to him, and often happier, than his lesser abilities can make possible to his less well-endowed fellow-beings. He wins praise and admiration for qualities he may have done nothing, or at least no more than any one else, to develop. It is frequently the case that the dull child works harder than the clever child at school, and often continues to do so throughout life. He is indeed more often in a position which compels him to do so, for on the whole the more remunerative occupations fall to the lot of the more intelligent. But in spite of this the intelligent sometimes add to the many afflictions of the dull the sense of inferiority, the feeling that they are being looked down upon. The clever teacher is not exempt from this intellectual arrogance, a defect of character to which his abilities and the praise of others tempt him. For this again there is no cure but a clear understanding of the merits of the case, of which the intelligent is naturally capable, and the cultivation of that sympathy with stupidity which if the heart is sound will follow from that clear understanding.

Intelligence as Viewed by Industry

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INTELLIGENCE has been defined as the ability of a person to adapt himself adequately to a relatively new situation. Arbitrary definition, however, does not satisfy the practically-minded student of humanity. During the past ten or fifteen years, therefore, great amounts of time and money have been spent in trying to determine more definitely the real nature of intelligence. Hundreds and thousands of different tests have been evolved by educators and psychologists in this and in other countries to the end that some index number or label might be placed on individuals and thus permit a prophecy as to the potential worth of their adaptive ability to society. All sorts of difficulties have been encountered in this attempt at classification.. The one chief hindrance, of course, has been the lack of a touchstone, or test, or measuring stick that would be valid in dealing with this hypothetical entity which we choose to call intelligence. Like the ether of space, we have heard it spoken of so often that we have come to take it for granted.

Of a brood of pigs we notice one of them which always seems to obtain more than its share of food from the mother and we immediately classify the little fellow as a pretty smart pig. We see a child quickly learn to handle a spoon while eating of its morning porridge and we quite willingly deduce that the child is intelligent. We meet some one who seems to leave us with a desire to know more of them and what they have done in life, and we say that we have met an intelligent person. These judgments, in many cases, may be wrong and different judges would disagree as to the index number or label of another person's intelligence.

A reflection on the nature of intelligence leads us to study the history of man's development. After all, in the long run, those people have survived who have been the most intelligent, or in other words, who have been best able to adapt themselves to the circumstances in which they were placed. Some may take exception by saying that in time of war this is not the case. Until recently, though, the most bloodthirsty and quarrelsome were the ones who went to war. And even during the late war it was often those men who most loved their homes — not representative of an inferior type of intelligence by any means—who stayed with their families in spite of the propaganda which was created to make the stay-at-home appear a slacker. That intelligence which continually places fighting or thinking above living has been proven by history to be of short duration. The aim of education, in the past, has been too much to prepare for life *à la cafeteria* and not enough to give a person that equipment by which he can make a decent and respectable living. Somehow, it has too often been taken for granted that upon graduation students are to be given a diploma or degree that will be a magic key to a roll-top desk in a mahogany-finished office with a bronze name-plate on the door. Many a college student likes to be thought of as a gentleman who does nothing with his hands. Some one has suggested that the hobo likes to be thought of in the same light.

But let us inquire into the nature of this intelligence which gives us the power of adaptation to the place in which we find ourselves on this endless belt of attempted progress and civilization. Here we come, into a world composed of millions of sticks and stones. Apparently we are at the apex of the animal kingdom. We ignore the idea that sticks or stones should have intelligence, although we do ascribe this rather indefinable capacity to others of the animal kingdom than simply the human species. It seems rather peculiar, in a world which has spent such a large share of its existence without a written language, that most of the tests so far

standardized should have been based on quite a comprehensive knowledge of written and spoken language. Intelligence may be a matter largely of heredity, but the art of writing or speaking a language has to be learned along with multitudinous other skills required by the complex age in which we live. In the history of the race, sticks and stones came before words and sentences. Human nature survived and adapted itself to the material things round about for thousands and thousands of years before a written means of communicating ideas was developed. In a workaday world as lived by the vast majority of people, bread-earners-by-the-sweat-of-their-brow, a very small portion of their time is spent with the printed page. Many of the most learned nations in history have gone down to the dust along with the tribe and clan.

All existence from the lowest form of life to the highest is an adaptation to environment, to a changing canvas of events, to a constantly renewed panorama of sticks and stones if you please. Is life so simple that we can ever find a true measure, some unvarying criterion, by which we can predict that this person will survive and that another will not? It may be that we can. So far, no very conclusive proof has been offered one way or the other. This much is assured—we cannot as yet presume to say on a basis of our comparatively novel measures of this assumed entity, that one child in school is to be given less encouragement than is another. As some one has suggested, there may be misfit schools, misfit courses of study, and misfit teachers, but never can the term "misfit" be applied to innocent youth.

One of the most stressed arguments for intelligence testing has been that it serves as a basis for dividing classes into bright and dull groups so as to give more work to those with less capacity. But we have forgotten what this division is likely to do to our future citizens. We are not to have this sort of condition in later life. All those with low mental ability will not be placed over in the state of Washington while

the other group is kept in Maine or Florida. One of the functions of education is to make people more agreeable, more conventional, and better able to understand one another. Pride, conceit, and arrogance should be subdued rather than fostered.

A great amount of our education is like some of the patent breakfast foods now on the market. About nine-tenths of their good comes from the fact that they are a medium of transfer or absorbing agent for the sugar and cream. So, today, the content of a lot of our school subjects is merely a means of keeping us busy while the more important, life-functional, sugar-and-cream lessons of habits, attitudes, ideals, and associations are ingrained in us. Many a graduate at commencement time suddenly realizes that he has let his studies interfere with his education. Rather than cliques or blocs or water-tight compartments to society there should be a more forward looking relationship, if our education is to make the coming generation safe for our democratic form of government. The intelligent person must be prevented from being an autocrat, and the less fortunately endowed individual must never be forced to be a slave because of economic pressure. By being together in the classroom during their earlier years they will come to a more desirable understanding with one another. The world needs the services of the person with so-called low intelligence just as surely and sorely as it needs the services of the person in the miscalled upper class. In the United States we have hesitated, in the past, to speak of an upper class but such is fast coming to be a reality. In our form of government a rich man's son with low intelligence should meet with at least as many obstacles in going to college or university as does a poor man's with high intelligence. We will never reach a stage of civilization when none of the world's grindstones is to be turned by foot power or hand power. The Creator of all things did not intend that, over night, the *genus homo* should harness the energy of the earth to automatically perform his every task and thereby arrange

human existence so that it becomes merely a thought process. Added powers at our disposal mean nothing less than that our accomplishments, both physical and mental, shall be increased accordingly.

As I try to think of intelligence, as I try to grasp it, to turn it over and reflect on it I rather like to think of a pioneer or stone-age situation. I like to strip mankind of as much of his sophisticated learning, habits, and customs as possible, leaving only the instincts for help and guidance in this adaptation process. I like to think of the first two men who met as strangers. It is more realistic to fancy only one of them surviving. What an interesting struggle it must have been! Doubtless, few words were used. Their introduction was made with sticks and stones even as many boys between the ages of 8 and 14 are still wont to do rather than engage in stilted drawing-room conversations. Or, the struggle of these first two stone throwers might have been similar to encounters of individuals on the field of the late war, soldiers who, depleted of ammunition, suddenly met in hand-to-hand combat. This was certainly an adaptation to a relatively new situation. Truly, it was a very vital measure of one's intelligence.

Then again, it is interesting to see intelligence all alone out in the woods or jungles hundreds of miles from civilization, dressed only in the clothes that mother gave us. It is winter—food and water must be had, the wild animals must be outwitted, one of their furs is needed for clothing, and some shelter must be built against the sleet and snow. All that one has is at stake. It is a true-false test with only one question to be answered. This is the sort of intelligence that has counted in the past. Many elements of this same situation are needed in the industrial, agricultural, and commercial activities of today.

Then too, I like to think of intelligence as having to do with the buttered side of a slice of bread. Intelligence does not look right dolled up in a dress suit going down Broadway

at 2:00 A. M. with an encyclopædia under his arm. There are many things or items to be taken into consideration when we attempt to determine this index number of adaptability. I believe that the nearer we can visualize the human in a primal state the more nearly perfect will be our measure. We never will get away from a world of sticks and stones. Every once in a while civilization goes back to that place. Witness the brickbats and bones on the arena of struggle where all the intelligence of the world, but a short time ago, was concentrated. The advancement of the race in real unlacquered civilization is a slow process. We smile at the South African tribesman who wears a ring in his nose and we turn to admire the persons on Michigan Avenue who wear rings in their ears. The moth flits about over the open flame and burns its wings despite the warnings of countless of its fellow-kind who are helplessly scattered about on the ground. A child is admonished not to touch the hot stove, but waits until the mother is out of sight and then burns its fingers anyhow. The younger generation is warned of the horrors of war by those who have been in the trenches, and forthwith in thirty or forty years has to experiment for itself. The clarion call of commerce, industry, and nature speaks so loudly that the voice of many an academic teacher is like dropping a pin in a boiler factory. Textbooks are fine but they were never intended to impart the real lessons of life.

But what is intelligence? Who can say? We think that we know it when we see it. However, the older we become the more hesitant we are to express an opinion. To select one hundred or two hundred abstract language or arithmetic items, putting in none of the concrete items, and then to say that our sampling represents a valid measure of intelligence seems on the face of it to be rather absurd. Bread and butter in the final analysis are earned by that intelligence which deals with the plow, with the spade, with the hammer, with the loom, with the lathe, with the oven, with the trowel, and

with hundreds of other machines, appliances, and hand tools. The white-collar type of intelligence is helpless when the other ceases to function.

Suppose that we do succeed in measuring these abstract items, there will yet remain many other qualities fully as important and quite as elusive when we attempt to measure them. For instance, it seems that industry, honesty, and old-fashioned stick-to-it-ive-ness have something to do with the degree to which a person finally adapts himself to his environment. All situations in life are not of the ten or twenty-minute intelligence-test variety. The precocious hare in an olden story may have had an I. Q. of 150. He would have ranked high in a modern intelligence test, but the plodding turtle with an I. Q. of only 75 pulled down the blue ribbon. Likewise, the bank-teller whose intelligence is such that he becomes disgusted with the slowness of an adding machine, still is soon left off the payroll if he does not observe an honesty which respects the rights and property of others. Too, it seems that a person's manner, his dress, his ability to meet and talk with people, also have a bearing on the coefficient of adaptability that one possesses in climbing the stairway of society. The risers to this stairway are not all of the same height, some of the treads are worn through, here and there a railing is somewhat shaky, and now and then a worm-eaten underprop or false standard of living must be avoided. Each new venture is a challenge to our adaptability, a challenge to every quality which we possess. We cannot say which particular virtue will be the password to the accomplishment of a certain task. There is many a Lincoln, and Edison, and Mozart, and Shakespeare who have failed in this adaptive process, not because of lack of mere brilliance, but because one or more of the other qualities were lacking. A quart of brains seasoned with a little common-sense may be better than a gallon of high-gloss snobbish intelligence. We may find that the one unfailing criterion of adaptability will be that of living from day to day,

of eking from matter, plants, and other animals that sustenance necessary to the satisfaction of our pleasures, whims, and desires.

But what is intelligence? Are we born with a certain capacity which we can neither add to nor subtract from? Can this quality be accurately measured? As yet, the sun has barely risen on a heyday which we hope shall answer these questions. Like the person who could not see the forest because of the trees, so today, a large majority of the workers who have contributed most to the answering of these questions are still unable to see the world because of the stacks of intelligence tests behind which they are working. There are thousands of teachers who have never been inside a factory, let alone working in one for a while in order that they might know some of the future experiences which many of their pupils will be required to meet. A very large percentage of teachers never visited the inside of homes in which their pupils live, in order that they may become acquainted with actual living conditions and surroundings of their children. The saying is literally true right here within the confines of the United States that, "One-half of the world does not know how the other half lives." A textbook in many cases is largely a prop for the teacher who cannot see the most vital lessons in common community life.

But certainly it would be unfair for any one to get the impression that intelligence tests thus far developed have been of little value. To the contrary, they have accomplished a great deal, and any one who has worked with them realizes that they are of great worth when sanely used. The workers in this field are contributing more to the scope of educational endeavor than are, perhaps, the workers of any other group. Nowhere will one find more conscientious, scientifically-minded people than in the field of intelligence testing. Their less thoughtful members have done them the most harm. Oftentimes the tests have been given for the sake of the tests, rather than for the sake of the children. The

purpose of education is to produce a child who has the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, and ideals to meet the test of happy productive citizenship. In our zeal for an automatic, machine-processed, card-cataloging type of education, let us not forget that the ships which we are sailing are the ships of human nature. Some are freighters, some are sailing vessels, some racing yachts, and some majestic liners. The ports are numerous, the weather is changeable, many of the captains are inexperienced, and the number of courses is infinite.

Christmas

Bayberry candles are aglow;
The lights are on the tree;
Delightful seeming—Thoughts have come
Which bring you near to me.

A Merry, Merry Christmas,
Dear friend! Fond memories throng
To fill the day with Happiness,
His gift—His theme—His song.

MINNIE E. HAYS.

Science Applied to Problems of Musical Instruction

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INSTRUMENT manufacturers have long been aggressive in the acceptance of new means of improving the mechanism of musical instruments. Phonograph and radio manufacturing companies have been especially progressive during the last few years in developing superior instruments in their respective fields. The modern electrically operated organ with its marvelous tonal possibilities, the refined action and tone qualities of the grand piano and the so nearly perfect reproducing machines have brought a new era in the possibilities of musical accomplishment.

On the other hand general education has been making tremendous strides forward. There are more students in high school now than there were in college three or four decades ago. Certain standards have been set up which make instruction throughout the country nearly uniform. A child can go from a remote village to the metropolis and lose little if any time in his educational program. Various methods for the improvement and standardization of instruction have been suggested by numerous school surveys and investigations. Such accumulated data placed educational authorities in a position to recommend the general reduction in time necessary to complete courses through the junior college from fourteen to twelve years.

Musical pedagogy has not kept pace with other types of instruction, considering the high efficiency attained by music pedagogues a century or more ago. Very little research has been done in music and too often the results which have been

obtained by experimental methods are received with too little credence by the average musician or teacher. The latter are often indifferent or actually antagonistic to such facts. By virtue of this indifference and antagonism toward current educational policies certain attitudes have been crystalized which in the main are against music as a bona fide curricular subject(9). The immediate consequences of such attitudes have been disastrous to music in education. Administrators have been driven to classify the tonal art as one of the lesser important subjects in the elementary and secondary schools and have relegated it, in many instances, to the status of an extra-curricular subject. This is the inevitable result which might be expected in a subject with so rich but unscientific and unorganized system of pedagogy back of it. There is no question but that the chaotic condition of public school music today is due largely to the lack of scientific evidence as to what should be taught and the best way to teach it.

Systems of traditional 'personality' teaching have not improved with the advance of modern methods in general education. Bach, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Liszt and Franck got as good or better results than teachers of the present day considering the instruments, literature, and materials they had to use. The situation plainly indicates that a great genius like Leschetizky, Auer, or De Rezske would succeed in bringing out a number of good students—mostly students who have had much good training before coming under the tutorage of the master—through sheer personal influence and reputation. Other teachers employing the same methods with lesser gifts of talent, suggestive power, and tact would fall down completely. In other words musicians have always been aristocratic to the extent of developing only the most talented students—(under such conditions most any method would work) and the great teachers of music have never been forced to develop a general system of teaching principles which would work with students of all degrees of talent.

The lack of adequate technique for handling groups in musical training has been quite in evidence throughout our

school system. Because of a dearth of systematized and traditionally recognized general musical pedagogy the interest in serious music study has been downward regardless of the apparent prosperity of musical enterprises which have flourished under a very healthy economic reign. Sigmund Spaeth's condemnation that 99% of the American people are non-musical has more than a grain of truth in it. The great retail turn-over of 'painted' saxaphones of various 'species' and the employment of eccentric colored light and 'jagged' rhythm effects to aid pure music are not indications of south health for the tonal art. From 1910 to 1920 there was an actual decrease of 6½% in the number of teachers of music and musicians. Compare this with 27% increase in public school teachers in America, 82% increase in nurses, 7% increase in lawyers, 8% increase in ministers, and 54% increase in technical engineers.

The severe criticisms of results achieved in the school through musical instruction have been voiced by David Snedden (9) and others. These criticisms coupled with the above facts; the approaching plateau in economic development; the numerous rows between sponsors and our very expensive symphony orchestras; and the severe fight of many school subjects for continued existence on the school Curriculum (3) are eventually going to force music to the background entirely—as far as the public schools are concerned—unless some real effort is made on the part of musicians to coöperate with research workers in evaluating and standardizing methods of musical instruction.

It is quite evident that unless children and parents are converted to music through the public schools (13) no growing interest for music is going to be engendered in the population at large outside of the schools. From this standpoint the public schools are strategic points (3) for the cultivation of general musical taste and appreciation. Of course every musician will desire to take care of such problems himself and in his own way, but this is exactly what has been happening. The attempts of musical associations have often not

been supported by those persons for whom they are of most importance and value. The American Federation of Musicians is the nearest attempt at solidarity, yet the motives here are more mercenary than progressive.

Extreme acts of the unions perhaps have been justified at critical times, but it must be remembered that music is a luxury, not an absolute necessity. With living expenses soaring and wages at a standstill—if not actually being reduced—music will be one of the first luxuries to suffer. Let him who would take exception to such theory visit France, some of the southern or western provinces, and locate a first-class piano and an accompanist in a hamlet of 10,000 people; or even in musical Germany, despite the fact that one of the requirements of a public school teacher has, for many years, been some ostensible musical training. Thus we should not overlook the fact that in a democratic country like America, where every child is compelled to go to school, the logical way to interest the public at large in music is through effective instruction in the public schools (13). So far we must admit, however, despite the rapid growth of musical attempts in the schools, this ideal has not been realized.

Many capable musicians are in other lines of endeavor because of the tedium of routine in the musical profession and the relative limits of income and advancement. This is corroborated by the above references to "walk-outs" of the union, and the contention is that musicians are justified in such procedure but that their method is wrong. By united effort, musicians, educators and music patrons, can make America actually as musical as Germany has nominally been for the past two centuries. Such coöperation would not mean simply an hypothetical representation of supposed virtues, but of an actual demonstration of the socializing and educational value of music through some first-class experimental work. This alone can give musical training the prestige it deserves to have. To this end a journal of experimental musical education should be established which would

collect, digest and present such material to the general public at least to the educational public.

In the following paragraphs a few suggestions will be given which might indicate some possible avenues of procedure. One of the first basic factors to be taken up is that of individual differences in capacity to learn music(10) as in learning other things. Musicians and teachers should not take every student who has money to pay for lessons without some assurance that it will be worth his while to study. At least a scientific statement should be made to the parent, or student himself, as to how far he can expect to go in music as a profession. Everyone should study music — with rare exceptions—as he studies language, with the idea of using it to aid him in life(6) rather than with the expectation of becoming a Bach, Handel, or a Beethoven. Science has already perfected measures of basic musical capacity in the way of the Seashore Music Tests (10). These tests have been developed and very carefully evaluated by one of the most careful scientists, yet evidence is lacking as to their interpretation and will remain so until musicians are awakened to the possibilities of such measures. The Seashore tests indicate the native capacity of the individual but little is known as to how much of such capacity is necessary to achieve a certain degree of success.

Not only must we know of basic capacity for sensory discrimination but also of emotional and volitional qualities of the individual. Many geniuses, physically, develop systems of marvelous technique but have nothing to express. Emotional differences are subtle and much experimentation is needed. Kwalwasser at Syracuse University is now working on one phase of this problem and has recently developed a test of native æsthetic judgment. Again the aid of the musical profession is solicited to coöperate in carrying out the necessary research for the evaluation and interpretation of such tests.

Still another angle that has been only touched as yet and which offers a tremendous amount of insight into the tech-

nique of reading music is that of the phenomena of perception, the manner in which the page of music is grasped by the reader Jacobson at Chicago University has worked on a phase of this problem and has some very valuable information for the wide awake teacher of music. There are tremendous differences in ability to read music and such functions need to be very carefully analyzed.

The physical qualifications of the individual have been studied to some extent by the writer(7); independently by Esther Gatewood (3) at Carnegie Institute in this country; and by Binet and Vaschide(1) in Paris. The results show rather conclusively that many other factors than native speed of movement are involved in musical performance. Again we need verification of results in the actual field for the interpretations of physical tests to ascertain the degree of capacity required to attain a certain standard of success in music. This would of course first necessitate some kind of scale which would place mature musicians with respect to efficiency. No test of this kind for adults has yet been devised which can be said to be reliable and objective. Such a rating scale would be of tremendous importance to musicians' unions, teachers' agencies, concert bureaus, etc.

Clapp(2) at Iowa University, Hutson(4) at Minneapolis, Trabue(12), Pond, Windhorst(15), Schoen, and others have worked on various angles of actual experimentation from methods of memorizing to results obtained in the public schools and the most efficient methods of learning French horn, but the data has not been brought together into a synthesized account.

Another urgent problem of music training in America is the question of the age at which formal instruction shall begin. Education generally, misled by some premature conclusions of some teachers(11) and others who were supporters of the doctrines of "nature's infallibility," "Catharis" and the "recapitulation theory," is just recovering from the effects of these or similar theories which advocate or encourage long delayed instruction in childhood. Gesell, Baldwin,

Watson, and others have demonstrated fairly well the advantage of general early training, at least in a formal way of familiarizing us with certain genetic laws and every piece of evidence indicates the special application of such principles to musical training. The thesis put forth in this article is that the earlier the training is begun—other things being equal—the greater the chances of success.

The first evidence to be offered in support of this theory is in the realm of music proper. Thirty-six of the world's greatest composers and performers were studied through investigation of their biographies and the age at first evidence of formal training tabulated. Upon compiling the figures it was found the average age of beginning the study of music was 6¼ years(8). While quite young this includes many composers such as Wagner who was not primarily an instrumentalist, Berlioz — father of the modern orchestra — who played only guitar, Tchaikowsky and others who were noted more for their gifts of composition. By a careful study of the great instrumentalists such as Mozart, who toured the world with his sister at the age of 9; Bach, the greatest master; Handel, composer of the immortal Messiah; Chopin, the poetic Polish pianist; Franz Liszt, the great Hungarian virtuoso; Beethoven, the marvelous tonal architect of all time; Richard Strauss, one of the greatest of modern masters; and others of equal rank, reveals that they began instrumental study at the average age of 4½ years.

The second bit of experimental evidence is of quite a different character. Animals were used to determine the relative learning ability at different ages. At Johns Hopkins University (5) four groups of 100 white rats were used in learning what is called a maze experiment—a long circuitious pathway beset by numerous blind alleys through which the rats were induced to run by being starved in advance. The time was taken for each excursion. One group of rats was about 300 days old, representing the beginning of old age, one group 200 days old, representing middle age, another group of mature rats about 65 days and finally a group of

youthful rats 25 days old were run through the maze. The young rats learned the maze in approximately three-fourths the time required by the old rats and could perform the feat in almost half the time.

Finally the reader has carried on a series of researches (7) which seem to indicate quite definitely that unusual talent in specialized motor ability is not necessarily an accompaniment of rapid and graceful general bodily movement. The results seem to indicate the advantage of early training in such lines of endeavor, for habits formed earlier in life come to be more natural to the organism than those formed later. The conclusions were essentially in harmony with the findings of Binet and Vaschide (1) in Paris who studied a group of artists—pianists who took part in the "Concerts de Colonne," a representative institution of the French capital—and found their superiority to lie more in the direction of control and accuracy rather than in speed of movement. Some common observations will tend to confirm these suggestions since we are well aware of the ease and precision with which a small child learns a language as compared with a grownup.

In summarizing, it is quite evident that music, to be able to hold its own as a flourishing art, must "come out of its shell" so to speak and take up the scientific investigation of its problems. Further, some effort must be made to secure more information on vocational guidance in music (10), to select and train those highly gifted, to equip those less gifted for the appreciation of the best music with the necessary skill for amateur performance of standard music and to educate them as intelligent patrons of the art. Since so much depends on the age of the student as to the results of a given amount of training, methods of study and practice should carefully be gone over by scientific procedure to ascertain the most effective methods for use with children of different ages. The results of training at a given age, the materials to be used, and the methods employed for best results, should be objectively studied.

Very little has been done to psychologize methods of pre-

senting musical information and technique. An analysis of movements to be made by motion pictures, and other recording devices would help to eliminate many unnecessary movements in performances. Divers, runners, and athletes in general have taken advantage of such apparatus and technique with amazing success. Even bricklayers were found by Gilbreth to increase their output more than 200% through the elimination of certain unnecessary movements. Certainly such complicated technique as is employed in music performance needs detailed analysis before vocational guidance tests can be constructed or sound pedagogical advice definitely given.

It is not the purpose of this paper to offer a critique of individual methods of instruction used in music, but merely to point out the chaotic condition of instruction as a whole and the danger which threatens music as a result of such anomalies. Some scientific investigation has been done in music, but considering the fruitful work in other fields of pedagogical research, the efforts have been very feeble.

In fine, let us not be too optimistic about "common sense" methods of music instruction. "Common sense" — literally interpreted—means merely that which is common experience to the senses of different persons. Details are no more accurately "sensed" by the best of instructors and professors through the regular routine of teaching, than Hertzian waves are sensed by an Alpine herdsman because of a need for long distance communication. Delicate laboratory apparatus will reveal striking errors in any empirical system of teaching as the microscope reveals the teeming millions of organisms invisible to the naked eye. Music is primarily an art, but an art which does not utilize the techniqque of science is doomed to lose the respect of twentieth century thought.

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Comparative Content of Educational Philosophy Text Books

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TO serious thinking men and women life must be given a consistent interpretation, in which the nature and interests of mankind find real significance and meaning, before they can adequately know the joy of purposive living. To this end the race always has had and always will have its philosophers. Nor is it surprising that society's most highly organized agency of reproduction, formal education, should receive the attention of these philosophers.

The Philosophy of Education, as such, has received enough attention to make it feasible to enquire: What is the Philosophy of Education? In seeking an answer to this question we find various replies. To Dr. Dewey philosophy "is the theory of education in its most general phases" and the "Philosophy of Education is . . . only an explicit formulation of the problems of the formation of right mental and moral habitudes in respect to the difficulties of contemporary social life." This makes it the matter of solving social conflicts. To Professor Bode it is a matter of adjustment of the different values, such as the interests of childhood, vocational needs, and the cultivation of "purely intellectual interests," while Dr. Horne would link education up to the nature of reality and ask "what are the implications of education?" Other authors have largely shaded into one or another of these views, though often allowing generously for their own particular interest or prejudice.

In the matter of text books there seem to be about ten or fifteen, covering the last twenty-five years, which deal pri-

marily with this field, though there are a great many more which shade off into the principles and theory of education.

In the light of the foregoing, this paper is a brief summary of an investigation having as its purpose, "*to determine the principal texts being used, the philosophical approach to the subject most prevalent, and the comparative content of the most prominent texts.*" This investigation was undertaken as a piece of graduate research for the Masters degree by the writer who is a student in the Biblical Seminary in New York and in New York University.

In order to determine the text books most in use in teaching Educational Philosophy and the viewpoints from which this subject is now being taught, it was necessary to ascertain which colleges and universities in the United States were giving courses under the title of "The Philosophy of Education." The World's Almanac for 1926 lists approximately four hundred and twenty-five colleges and universities of recognized scholastic standing in this country. Upon close examination of the catalogues of three hundred and eighty-eight, or about ninety-one percent of these schools, it was found that fifty-four of them offered courses in this one subject. To these schools a brief questionnaire was sent and answers received from forty, which is a return of seventy-four percent. These answers came from twenty-six universities, twelve colleges, and two other schools unidentified, these institutions being located in twenty-three states very evenly distributed throughout the United States. In each case the answer was from the Professor teaching the course.

The first point of the questionnaire dealt with the textbooks being used. Each professor was to list the three texts most used in their order of value. In tabulating the results, all textbooks receiving a first choice were given three points, those receiving a second choice were given two points, and those receiving a third choice were given one point. Listing

all those which received at least two choices, the following results were obtained;—

Rank	*Points*	*Author*	*Text*
1.	52	Kilpatrick	Source Book in the Philosophy of Education. (Also Syllabus)
2.	48	Dewey	Democracy and Education.
3.	27	Chapman-Counts	Principles of Education.
4.	15	Horne	Philosophy of Education.
5.	6	Bode	Modern Educational Theories.
6.	4	Henderson	Principles of Education.
7.	4	Howerth	Theory of Education.

Other books which received single mention were: Kilpatrick, "Foundations of Method"; Coursault, "Principles of Education"; Randall, "Making of the Modern Mind"; Partridge, "Genetic Philosophy of Education"; Spearman, "Abilities of Man"; Shields, "Philosophy of Education"; Patrick, "Introduction to Philosophy"; Jones, "Essentials of Education"; Charters, "The Teaching of Ideals."

The second point of the questionnaire dealt with the philosophical viewpoint from which this subject was approached and handled. The results are:—

Number	*Viewpoint*
12	Idealism
10	Pragmatism
5	Eclecticism
3	Behaviorism
9	Eclectic mixtures distributed as follows:
2	Idealism, pragmatism
2	Pragmatism, behaviorism
1	Personality, pragmatism
1	Personalism, instrumentalism
1	Idealism, pragmatism, behaviorism
1	Positivism, pragmatism, behaviorism
1	Idealism, *realism*, behaviorism
1	Historical approach

It is quite interesting to notice that many who were Idealists used a pragmatic textbook, and also to notice the number who worked with apparently self-contradictory viewpoints.

Carrying the study further the four leading textbooks in

the above list were analyzed to determine the twenty leading topics in each text. The topics in each case were the author's own and the rank was based on space occupied, carried down to quarter pages. This required much difficult judgment but is fairly accurate. These four lists of topics were then synthesized, and the final list of ten topics is:—

Rank	*Topic*	*Texts* (number having this topic.)
1.	Individual	4
2.	Method	3
3.	Thinking	3
4.	Democracy	2
5.	Environment	2
6.	Personality	2
7.	Society	2
8.	Interest	3
9.	Vocational education	2
10.	Morals	2

These ten topics were then used as the basis for further analysis to determine how they were treated. It was found that Dr. Kilpatrick's Source Book drew largely from Dr. Dewey, quoting him to the extent of fifteen percent of its quotations and nineteen percent of its pages. It further being a source book of conflicting views and not representative of one man's view except in organization, it was omitted from this phase of the study, and the next six of the original list were used.

Upon summarizing and re-summarizing there was finally brought out the range and completeness of treatment, in terms of sub-topics, of each main head as it is approached by six different men. Under this treatment the following was evolved by synthesis:

1. Individual:
   - Relation to reality or cosmic significance.
   - Relation to society.
   - Relation to environment; heredity; will or effort.
   - Historical perspective.
   - Individual differences.
   - Adjustment: self realization; re-making environment; habit formation.

2. Method:
   - Defined as experimental, pragmatic, scientific.
   - Defined as purposive activity, receptivity, reflection.
   - Realized through study habits; application of principles.
   - Relation of knowledge and activity.
   - Adaptation to age level.
   - Humanizing of method.
3. Thinking:
   - As identical with method.
   - As interaction of language habits.
   - As directive, adaptive, auto-critical; relating action to consequences.
   - As conceptual re-adjustment.
   - Its neurological basis.
   - Its value in relation to resultant knowledge.
4. Democracy:
   - Associated living and conjoint experience.
   - Based upon mutual recognition of aptitudes and interests.
   - Relation to development of highest personality of citizens.
   - Relation to objective civic education.
   - Relation to curriculum.
   - As meaning academic freedom; equal opportunity in education.
5. Environment:
   - As sum total of conditions concerned in human activity.
   - As effecting agencies without, ideas within.
   - As three-fold: intellectual, emotional, volitional.
   - As spiritual: thought, feeling, plan of God in the world.
   - Relation to heredity.
   - Relation to school:
     - The school like life.
     - The school to simplify, order, purify, and balance environment.
   - Possibility of being remade for a better future.
6. Personality:
   - As denoting a socially efficient being.
   - As denoting perfect integration and harmony of conduct and self.
   - As denoting unification of total character.

7. Society:
   - As many divided individual groups.
   - Relation to future, and education:
     - As the ideal democratic state.
     - As unified whole of component parts.
     - As internationalism, world citizenship.
   - Relation to Sociology.
   - Relation to schools:
     - Society preserved, guarded, bettered.
     - Level raised through selected individual types.
8. Vocational education:
   - As type of true purposive education.
   - As fairly separate: an integrated body of particular activities,—one's economic specialty.
   - As responsibility of particular industries.
   - Relation of trade schools and formal system for professional training.
   - Harmonization of culture and vocational education.
9. Interest:
   - Relation to effort.
   - Relation to subject-matter and method as criteria of activities.
   - As identical with purposeful activity.
   - As outcome of motor adjustment.
   - As essential in education.
   - As an immediate aim of education.
10. Morals:
    - As social quality of conduct.
    - As unemotional religion.
    - Relation to school teaching.
    - As a responsibility of family and church.
11. Aim in education:
    - Adjustment of youth to the realities of life.
    - To assist an initially ill-adapted individual to make proper adjustment.
    - Adjustment of a fully developed individual to God as revealed through his spiritual environment.
    - To make a reconstruction or reorganization of experience which:
      - Adds meaning to life.
      - Increases ability to direct course of subsequent experience.
    - To impart a desire for further education.
    - The perfection of democracy.

12. Author's aims in writing text:
    To expound implications of ideal democracy stressing experimental and pragmatic method.
    To ground students in sound principles of educational philosophy.
    To unify contemporary conflicting claims from the viewpoint of Idealism.
    To give perspective in educational thinking.
    To ground the theory of education in organic, psychic, and social evolution.
    To proclaim educational theory from the viewpoint of evolution.

One can hardly complete a study such as this present one without forming certain judgments and conclusions in regard to how a textbook in the Philosophy of Education should be written. In conclusion, therefore, we will outline the field and briefly show how these conclusions should guide one in writing such a text. The outline* used divides the field into six sections: (1) What is a Philosophy of Education? (2) What is the goal of education? (3) With what does the educational process start? (4) What are the means of education? (5) How shall we measure our educational progress? (6) Summary and conclusions: The meaning of Education?

I. What is a Philosophy of Education?

The textbooks studied in this thesis are seen to hold the following philosophic viewpoints:

Kilpatrick	Eclectic, though mainly Pragmatic.
Dewey	Social and Pragmatic.
Chapman-Counts	Eclectic, mainly Social.
Horne	Idealistic.
Bode	Pragmatic, broadly Behavioristic.
Howerth	Naturalistic and Socialistic.
Henderson	Naturalistic and Pragmatic.

This together with the fact that the questionnaire results gave three main viewpoints would lead to the conclusion that a textbook should treat the Pragmatic, Idealistic, and Eclectic viewpoints. Coming down to more specific treatment, education should be viewed in its relation to the Biological, Physiological, Sociological, and Psychological concepts of growth and development. The function should be to see the

* For these six divisions we are indebted to class work with Dr. Horne.

educational process whole and education as a part of the whole process. The text should endeavor to develop a critical, evaluating attitude in its readers. This would require that the textbook be a careful and impartial evaluation of opposing tendencies, treating all views sympathetically, and further, that it be a synthesis of the best which leaves out all propaganda in behalf of particular views. The writer should not deal merely with the principles of education but he should always aim to get back to the first principles and answer the questions "does this education mean anything significant for human happiness, progress, and destiny? What? Does education imply anything as to the final truth of man and his world? In brief, what is the meaning of education?" In answering these questions, in the impartial way outlined above, we will be answering our first question.

II. What is the goal of education?

Ethics, defined as "the basic principles of right action," should assist in giving the goal of education. This goal being reached through proper adjustment of the individual to his physical and social environment, and to a lesser degree perhaps, the adjustment of the environment to the individual and social group. In so far as God, freedom, and immortality are implied in education, and if it can be shown that from the practice of these conceptions there spring attitudes, feelings, and powers that may never be derived simply from a glorification of humanity, then to that extent adjustment should also consider these seriously. This section would further include a discussion of what are the chief values of life, as for example health, beauty, and a vocation. The foregoing study indicates that the ideal society and a real Democracy are one in being the main aim of education, and that the individual aim is self-realization through adjustment. The social and individual aims would be worked out and their relationships to each other shown.

III. With what does the educational process start?

The educational process starts with the original nature of the educand. In this section the text should apply the best of Psychology to the main problem. Individual differ-

ences, capacity, inheritance, environment, and will or effort should all be fully discussed and related to each other. The usual mistake of favoring inheritance against environment or the opposite or of accepting both and ignoring will should carefully be guarded against. Each of these three factors should be given fair treatment. The concept of personality should also be related to the whole. The individual's dependence upon society would, as a topic of discussion, round out this section.

IV. What are the means of education?

Under this section would come the discussions of social control, education as the function of society, method, curriculum, the teacher, and kindred subjects. Method should be treated as both philosophical and scientific,—purposeful receiving, appreciating, and meditating as well as purposeful activity. In the discussion of interest, effort should receive adequate attention. The place and function of vocation education should also be discussed. As section three above was grounded in psychology, so this section should be grounded in sociology.

V. How shall we measure our educational progress?

Under this section should come an evaluation of the testing movement. The philosophical implications of scales, together with their good points and bad points, should be pointed out. The past and the present should be compared and contrasted. There should be evaluation of the actual in terms of the ideal.

VI. Summary and conclusions: The meaning of education.

Under this section the many threads of the text would be woven together to spell out an answer to the questions of the opening section. The complete and finished definition of education would embody the results of the first five sections.

Such, in brief, is the conclusion of this study. This outline is admittedly incomplete. It, however, suggests the complete whole, and while the discussion under each section largely deals only with points which the thesis shows should be stressed, it does leave room for the complete development which an adequate text would embody.

Ruskin the Educator

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PRESIDENT GEORGE B. CUTTEN of Colgate University once remarked that a college student is indeed fortunate if in the course of his education, he meets one professor who is a real teacher and inspirer of men. The poet Goethe further characterizes such a teacher as acquiring talent in solitude but character in the swift-moving current of life.

Such a man was Ruskin,—lecturer, professor, and author,—in the development of character through the right kind of educational training. The Englishman's teachings, as found in his books and speeches, contain two principal thoughts: that moral ideas should dominate all others in character formation; that the need of an accurate, first-hand, and vital study of the facts of nature and of human life is of paramount importance. Mere book-learning is in no sense true education, he maintains, but the individual is only educated when he becomes a happy, beneficent, and effective citizen in his community.

In two of his famous works,—*Sesame and Lilies* and *Time and Tide*—Ruskin reviewed at length his opinions concerning education. "Kings' Treasuries," a lecture from the first work, was delivered at Rusholme Town Hall, near Manchester, England, in aid of a fund for a public library,—a peculiarly appropriate purpose when it is recalled that he spoke of kings' treasuries as libraries of good books. He delivered a second lecture—"Queens' Gardens," at the same place a week later, and this time gave the address for the benefit of a fund for additional schools. Indeed, the very fact that he had helped the cause of education inspired the author and lecturer to place his thoughts in permanent written form for

others to read. Apropos of this same engagement in Manchester, Mr. Walker, the High Master of the Grammar School, invited Ruskin to address his boys. The lecturer's good advice is worthy of attention because he spoke in terms which his audience could understand:

"The architect did not build it so on purpose [the Leaning Tower of Pisa]. The foundation was laid on soft, unequal ground, and when the first story was erected the building began to incline a little. The architect strove to remedy this step by step, and the result was the building as it now can be seen. It was so in life—begin on a faulty foundation and all would go crooked; while if the foundations were right, our course would be straight."

In *Kings' Treasuries* he introduces first the keynote of his address: the treasures hidden away in books, the way to find them, and the way to lose them. He shows great interest in the school systems of England for different classes, and is disturbed to find that certain false educational conceptions have crept into their management: that greed for money and appetite for applause have superseded the desire for well-disciplined minds. With Burns he might exclaim:

"The rank is but the guinea's stamp;
The man's the gowd for a' that."

He divides all books into two classes: those which are ephemeral, read for the moment only,—and those written for all time. He maintains that a well-educated gentleman may be acquainted with few languages, even speak only his own, and read very few books. But he knows his own tongue precisely; he pronounces his words correctly; and above all he is learned in the peerage of words; is conversant with their ancestry, their relationships, and the extent in which their use has been admitted into the conversation and literature of his time.

Here is the difference between the scholar and the superficially trained man, the educated and the uneducated. The study of foreign languages he says, is important that we may determine word meanings more accurately. In fact he advo-

cated government collections of books and manuscripts for educational purposes.

The proper use of books affords actual intercourse with great minds and men, but only to those whose hearts are capable of sympathy with finer natures. Ruskin's view was that of the Greek thinkers, who aimed at making their pupils philosophers; the view of men like Emerson and Hawthorne, who believed in "plain living and high thinking." To sum it all up, what are real kings' treasuries? Power, wealth, rank? No. Rather the intelligent analysis of words and thoughts and feelings of great authors; the scholar who is capable of conversing through books and study with the great minds of all ages; the cultured who have a real appreciation of literature, science, art, nature, and the problem of human intercourse. That man who can measure up to the above requirements is civilized and educated. The others are barbarians—*barbaroi*—in the Greek meaning of the word.[1]

The second lecture, *Queens' Gardens,* discusses the education of women, a significant fact when we consider both the development of coeducational universities and the equal suffrage movement in England and the United States. Ruskin says that the territory over which woman extends her sway may be likened to the garden of a queen. The lily is the emblem of purity and also the emblem of the rule of woman. In fact the author may have had in mind the gentle Rose La Touche, to whom the book is dedicated,—the child to whom he taught drawing in 1858, who died in 1875, bringing great sorrow into his life by refusing to become his wife. Everywhere he is impressed with the fact that woman has a guiding, although not necessarily determining function. Her intellect is for sweet ordering, arrangement, and decision.

"And whenever a true wife comes, this home is always round her. The stars only may be over her head; the glowworm in the night-cold grass may be the only fire at her foot; but home is yet wherever she is; and for a noble woman

1 The Greeks called all foreigners, "barbarians."

it stretches far around her, better than ceiled with cedar, or painted with vermillion, shedding its quiet light far, for those who else were homeless."

The problem, then, is to discover what sort of education is to fit her for life. Physical training he writes, is the basis for a sane and receptive mind; in addition all knowledge should be given to woman so that she may have a better opportunity to feel and judge, to have sympathy at all times, and to live a practical and unbigoted religious life. Man and woman should have the same education in youth, but the ends of such instruction are to be directed differently: the education of the husband should be foundational and progressive; that of the wife general and accomplished for daily and helpful use. Particularly should such a knowledge enable a wife to understand sympathetically her husband's work, as well as to mingle with his friends and take part in his professional pleasures.

The author's opinion concerning reading for the young lady is especially interesting in this day when our youth have access to all books and magazines, whether good or bad. He urges that a girl should be let loose in a good library of old books, whether it contains novels, history, or poetry, and she will soon learn to pick out the good and wholesome from the bitter and thorny. No person ever had moral damage from books which contained more of good than of evil. Thus man has his particular need for a certain education, profession, and interests; and woman has hers, although varying in degree but not in scope. Most of all woman must not live for herself alone, but be brought to a full sense of her duty to her neighbor as well as being a helper and heroine of the community in which she lives.

These two lectures aim at sane and healthful progress. All the views set forth are within the ken and reach of the average individual, and are essentially modern, only waiting for that individual to put them into practice; and they con-

form with the harmonization of Religion and Science to a remarkable degree.

> "Not in vain the distance beacons. Forward,
> forward let us range,
> Let the great world spin forever down the
> ringing grooves of change."

Time and Tide is a collection of letters addressed to a certain Thomas Dixon, a working cork-cutter of Sunderland, and appeared first in the columns of the *Leeds Mercury* and the *Manchester Daily Examiner and Times,* in March, April, and May, 1867. Later the communications were revised, and appeared in several editions which have been unusually popular with the English-reading public. In the spring of 1867 a great labor reform was desired by the working-men of England in which Dixon appeared to take a considerable part. Ruskin's attitude toward this movement may be condensed in the following words of advice:

"The reform you desire may give you more influence in Parliament; but your influence there will of course be useless to you — perhaps worse than useless, — until you have wisely made up your minds what you wish Parliament to do for you; and when you *have* made up your minds about that, you will find, not only that you can do it for yourselves, without the intervention of Parliament; but that eventually nobody *but* yourselves can do it."

Now the earlier letters criticize largely popular ideals, and the cure-alls which the politicians prescribed for them. The workingman had no union to help him maintain his rights. Collective bargaining, schedules of prices for labor and products had no place in his daily life, for there was little cooperation between different trades and guilds. Hence the laborer had no guarantee against mismanagement or failure of the business on which his livelihood depended.

Let us follow through some of Ruskin's proposed reforms: He condemned competition as a principle, for competition meant national animosity; and such a state led to large armaments, the upkeep of a huge military establishment, and

heavy taxes. To illustrate his point he showed the public what might be done when he established St. George's Guild as a working model of his teachings; to this he devoted his time and money. Today we find communities even in this country devoted to the perpetuation and fostering of the handicraft arts, such as the Shakers of Canterbury, New Hampshire, and the more modern looms of Old Deerfield, Massachusetts.

Influenced by the inhumanity of the teaching of his time he refused to have the three Rs taught in the Schools of St. George because he believed that few people get any good from reading or writing. Instruction in grammar was banished altogether. In order to avoid too literal an interpretation of his views, he provided a children's library in which scholars who cared to read could learn by themselves without troubling the master. He prophesied the end of the world; and the end of the world—*his world*—is rapidly approaching. The rise of a Labor Ministry in his time would have been unthinkable; representation of woman in Parliament highly undesirable; and the gradual waning of the ruling houses of Europe, a catastrophe. Even now Labor, or its representative, holds a controlling interest in the stock and management of many factories. Thus Ruskin's anticipation of the conflict between Labor and Capital proved to be correct.

He maintained that the church ought to work in harmony with the state. Her officers should be salaried by the government, her clergy should be *pastors*—shepherds of their flocks—rather than dabblers in doctrines and dogmas. Each bishop was to have charge of several hundred families,—a practice of the primitive church,—but no family was to be under any obligation to receive the ministrations of these officers unless the head of the household desired it.

The whole political body ought to be organic, not anarchic. Since not all people are virtuous, laws have to be made and administered, and this requires a strong hand. Every man should be a soldier, but he did not believe in war. The state

would salary captains, judges, bishops, and schoolmasters in order that they could have sufficient income to keep up good estates and to exemplify the art and graces of life. Retail dealers become salaried officers in the employ of the trade guilds, and the stewardship and purveyorship of salable guild properties are assigned to a certain number of families. It is important that such officers should be well educated in order to fulfill their duties to the public without the stimulus of direct profit.

Collingwood, his biographer, writes: "The scheme has the support of a historical analogy; it is in harmony with modern scientific views of the evolution of mankind; it is plastic enough to give play to the varying aims of individuals and classes; and since it does not premise universal happiness, it is not rightly described as Utopian."

Finally, what is the aim and function of education as found in *Time and Tide?* First, the aim of true learning is not primarily to teach man how to reach advanced heights, but to enjoy his present place. This is possible only if rights are respected, if the wage is that of the so-called "living-wage," and if labor of all grades is made honorable and respectable. The glory of hand labor was one of the fundamental principles of his philosophy.

All specialism, especially in the field of education, stereotypes ideas and processes which lead to the freedom of development of youthful minds. Ruskin repudiated all mechanical efforts at reform, believing that education should come as a reaction from within: the substance rather than the form was important. Every youth in the state, whether the son of a prince or of a cobbler, should receive a working knowledge of some craft in order that he might learn the meaning of "touch" and, if necessity required it, help in the practical, useful, and native furnishing of his home.

The function of education develops reverence and compassion. It discerns but does not level. Through it we discover our capacities, we insist on truth and have the incentive to do good work, and it makes us capable of honesty and delight.

Unfortunately the acquisition of knowledge, does not teach liberty and equality, for the lower classes desire to be upper classes instead of glorying in the opportunities they have in their own station in life. In general, history, science, and mathematics form the basis, with the laws of health permeating the whole structure. It is suggested that physical and moral training will make finer creatures of mankind through eradicating disease, stupidity, and vulgarity. Marriage will be regulated by limiting it to those who have attained "a certain standard of general and physical moral culture." "Gentle-folks ought to lead the way in plain living and high thinking."

Ruskin's views, although far in advance of his day, furnish an adequate support for the scientific methods of such renowned educators as Herbart, Pestalozzi, and Froebel. His writings have two dominant thoughts: the rightful influence of moral ideas in the formation of character, and the need of an accurate study of the facts of nature and child life.

Lost Visions

Men claim the soul most deeply moved
  Through melody which strikes the ear. . . .
At times it seems that slender tones
  Can bring lost visions back all clear.

Forgotten scenes will then rush in
  Upon the soul's far sight, unblurred.
Thus chords of memory, long mute,
  Are set to music, passion-stirred.

FREDERICK HERBERT ADLER.

American Notes—Editorial

The pressure of the contributed articles in this number of EDUCATION makes it necessary to limit the American Notes rigidly. Many things come to our desk which we would like to pass on to our readers. It is a matter of real satisfaction to all who have interest in the progress of the human race that so many men and women are giving so much thought and study to educational subjects. It may be safely said that education has become as important in the thought and interest of the people,—if not more so,—as trade and politics. It is something that concerns *everybody,* the young and the old, the ignorant and the learned, the rich and the poor, the native and the foreigner; and nowhere is this more evident than in America,—with its conglomerate citizenship. Every number of this magazine has, in its contributed articles and editorials and advertisements, promoted this subject. The magazine will continue to do so, as it approaches now its fiftieth year and volume. It will always stand for real education of the young and the old, the native and the foreigner. Its ideal is usefulness, rather than profit.

We are making these statements partly because we have just read in the daily press the announcement that two well-known educational magazines are combining,—which, it would seem, means that one of them, which has had a conspicuous place in the ranks for some years past, is practically giving up its corporate individuality. We are sorry! We believe that it will be missed. *We* shall miss it.

The "Educational Review" is merging with "School and Society." The announcement is as follows, as quoted here from The Science Press, viz.:

The merging of two of America's best known educational magazines will take effect November 1st, when the "Educational Review,"—recently acquired from Doubleday, Doran & Company by the Science Press,—will be combined with "School and Society." The magazine will be published weekly throughout the year under the editorship of J. McKeen Cattell with the coöperation of William McAndrew. The "Educational Review" was established in 1891 by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, now President of Columbia University, and was under his editorial direction for twenty-nine years. Dr. Frank P. Graves, formerly Dean of the School of Education at the University of Pennsylvania, and now New York State Commissioner of Education, acted as editor for four years, after which time William McAndrew, recently Superintendent of the Chicago Schools, became editor. "School and Society" was established in 1915, and since its founding has been edited by Dr. Cattell. During its history it has absorbed the "School Journal," established in 1874, and "The Teacher's Magazine," established in 1878.

Dr. George D. Strayer of Columbia University recently advocated as the minimum play area to be provided in connection with an elementary school, five acres; a junior high school, ten acres; a senior high school, twenty acres; so says The Playground and Recreation Association of America.

"Children's own desires and tendencies in play are the best guide in choosing playground equipment and materials," was the concensus of opinion. "Get the child's viewpoint," advised Charles H. English, executive secretary of the Playground Association of Philadelphia. "Children like simple playthings to which they have contributed a part," he announced as the result of a study involving 16,000 school children in Chicago.

A budget for 1929 of $380,358, more than a thousand dollars a day, was adopted for the Playground and Recreation Association of America. More than five thousand communities last year turned to the Association's correspondence and consultation service for advice in all phases of recreation work, said Joseph Lee, president, explaining an item of $31,000 for this work. It was stated that $40,000 would be allotted to research and publications; $43,600 to the National Recreation School in New York City; $23,000 to field service in colored communities; and $175,000 to direct field service in communities.

A nation-wide study of community music activities, the first of its kind, was announced as a new undertaking of the Association. By making complete inventory of resources for amateur music in America, the study will form a basis for field service, stated Augustus D. Zanzig, former lecturer on music at Harvard University, who will direct the study. The aim is "to provide opportunities for every one to find as much delight and nourishment of spirit as he or she can through music, especially through actually participating in it."

Ten per cent of the school population of the United States, or about 3,000,000 children, have measurable defects of hearing, reports the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education. The committee has recommended, among other things, a uniform law in all states and cities requiring an annual examination of the hearing of school children as a part of the general annual health examination, emphasis on the means of preventing deafness, and, ultimately, the opening of clinics in the schools. In regard to the education of the moderately deaf, training in special classes in "an environment of speech" rather than in institutions, with instruction in lip-reading, is recommended.

Book Reviews

TOWARD THE LIGHT. By Mary Fels. Published by George Dobsevage, 110 West 42nd St., New York, N. Y. Price $2.50.

A book that is well worth reading. It is an individual restatement of the fundamentals of personal religion; not of the Creeds, but of an individual experience, which can be had by any one who longs for it and lives and acts as the author of this book advises. The reviewer was educated at a New England "Prep. School" and College, and took the full three-years course in a professional Seminary, which was supposed to be strictly "orthodox"; but he is able to say that he finds himself in accord with the spirit of this book and gladly recommends it to thoughtful readers.

We acknowledge the receipt of the following books, each well worthy of elaborate review; but our space is inadequate to review them as we would like. They are on the market and it will pay the reader to investigate them.

THE STORY OF AMERICA. Book Two. The F. A. Owen Company, Dansville, N. Y. The price is 72 cents. Book One has been reviewed in EDUCATION.

From E. P. Dutton & Company, New York, N. Y., four separate volumes in the well-known "Everyman's Library," viz., THE WAY OF ALL FLESH, by Samuel Butler, with an Introduction by William Lyon Phelps; THE PURPLE LAND, by W. H. Hudson, with an Introduction by Theodore Roosevelt; THE PRIVATE PAPERS OF HENRY RYECROFT, by George Gissing; and EREWHON, OR OVER THE RANGE, by Samuel Butler, with an Itroduction by Francis Byrne Hackett. These are books that are admirable for summer reading. Their size suggests the overcoat pocket, whence they may be drawn conveniently, in the train, or as the automobile is halted for the lunch hour when on a long journey, or when one wishes to while away a dull evening at the hotel. The series covers a large number of titles, and they multiply like mushrooms (edible ones) over night! They demonstrate the literary productivity of the Anglo-Saxon race. The price of these books is only 80 cents each.

FEDERAL AID. By Austin F. Macdonald, Ph.D. (University of Pennsylvania). This is a study of the American Subsidy System. It discusses such subjects as the American Subsidy System, the Evolution of Federal Aid, Forest Fire Prevention, Agricultural Extension Work, Highways, The National Guard, Vocational Education, etc. Price $2.75.

From the Macmillan Company: THE AMERICAN AND GERMAN UNIVERSITY. By Charles Franklin Thwing, LL.D., Litt.D., L.H.D. Price $2.25. Traces and explains the influence of the German University on American thought and scholarship and teaching during the past century. The book is interesting to every scholar, and to those, especially, who are teaching in our colleges and universities here in America.

The Productive Presses of The T. Y. Crowell Company, New York City, are constantly producing fine books on all sorts of human interests, all of them interesting, scholarly and informing. We have received recently the following:

CROWELL'S DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By Maurice H. Weseen, Associate Professor of English in the University of Nebraska. This book should be on every desk where writing is done. By means of black-face type every word that the modern reader or writer stumbles over or misuses stands out on its appropriate page, and it is clearly defined and made usable. Price $4.50 net,—and well worth it.

HISTORY OF MODERN PHILOSOPHY. By Horatio W. Dresser, Ph.D. $3.00 net. The author's treatment of Ancient and Medieval Philosophy is a "classic" which will assure the attention of scholars, at once, for this later work. It is divided into two parts,—the first covering the period from Bacon to Kant, and the second from Kant to the present day. All the leading philosophical teachers between whiles are brought upon the stage, and one gets at least a "birdseye" view of their differing theories. A comprehensive volume upon a profound subject which lies at the basis of real progress in human affairs and practices.

LIVING LATIN. For the Junior High School. Book One. By Claire C. Thursby, M.A., and Gretchen Denke Kyne. Illustrated by Rodney Thomson and George M. Richards. The Macmillan Company. There are many new features in this book that will instantly commend themselves in the minds of teachers and pupils. The stories are interesting. Each lesson begins with a Latin story. The student acquires from one to eight new words in each story. Full discussion of grammatical principles follow the story. There are plenty of exercises. A feature is made of Derivative work. The reviewer has taught Latin, and he can truthfully say he wishes he had been the owner of a book like this at that period.

FRENCH TOPICAL EXERCISE PAD. By B. Simon, New Utrecht High School, Brooklyn, N. Y. Globe Book Company. Useful and stimulating to students of French. List price 40 cents. Publishers at 175 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.